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ABSTRACT

This study represents an attempt to present both sides of the behavioral objectives conflict in English and, after a discussion of the philosphical implications, to pose a suitable pedagogical compromise between the positions of the "behaviorists" and the "humanists." It is divided into three chapters: "Background Information and Positions on Behavioral Objectives: A Review" includes a historical perspective, a general definition of behavioral objectives, a summary of the arguments pro and con, and a review of the National Council of Teachers of English position on behavioral objectives; "Empirical Evidence and the Taxonomies" reviews studies conducted on the subject of objectives, examines the published taxonomies, and explores the ways in which taxonomies have been or might be adapted for English; and "A Behavioral Model for English," includes philosophical questions plaguing educators and a proposal for a pedagogically feasible solution to the groups for behaviorally-stated goals and those favoring more generalized objectives. Bibliographies follow each chapter and the document concludes with a brief summary and an annotated bibliography. (Author/RB)

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THE RELEVANCE OF BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES FOR ENGLISH

Patricia Olson

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FOREWORD

Imagine this scene: The high school principal announces to the English teachers that they will participate in a workshop one Saturday each month for one semester to prepare a set of measurable, behaviorally-stated objectives for each of their courses.

Pandemonium sets in!

Everyone quickly joins sides, with most members on the "opposed" team, and, perhaps, a few in the middle who don't really know what is meant by "measurable, behaviorally-stated objectives." Immediately shouts are heard: "Our students aren't rats in a Skinner box!" or "What I teach is too Gestalt to measure." or "I refuse to watch the English curriculum be reduced to rote-skill learning." or maybe "It's a trick to make us accountable to some administrator who knows nothing about our subject area."

Such scenes might be avoided if English teachers become informed about behavioral objectives. Then, after a rational look at the issue, if they remain philosophically or pedagogically opposed and cannot reconcile themselves to a compromise position, their opposition will be founded on well-thought out, reason-based arguments.

At the recent National Council of Teachers of English convention in Minneapolis, I attended the pre-convention workshop "Research, Evaluation, and Accountability for English Teachers." As I rode down twelve floors on a cramped elevator, I heard a fellow workshop participant exclaim with clenched fist: "We have

to do something! These people (the workshop leaders, I presume) are taking over the NCTE." He was obviously not interested in an objective consideration of the issue.

Before making a decision for or against behavioral objectives, English teachers should evaluate the applicability and implications of their use in the teaching of language arts. As John Maxwell and Anthony Tovatt (1970), editors of the NCTE publication On Writing Behavioral Objectives for English, so aptly put it, the writing of behavioral objectives for English is "not a task to be undertaken lightly nor by lightweights. The process bristles with problems in semantics, philosophy, measurement and pedagogy." (p. IX)

This study represents an attempt to objectively present both sides of the issue, and, after discussion of some of the philosophical implications, to pose a suitable pedagogical compromise between the positions of the behaviorists and the humanists.

The report is divided into three chapters: (I) Background Information and Positions on Behavioral Objectives: A Review, includes a historical perspective, a general definition of behavioral objectives, a summary of the arguments for and against their use, and a review of NCTE's stated position on the issue with a critique of their recent publications on behavioral objectives; (II)Empirical Evidence and the Taxonomies, a review of the empirical studies conducted on the subject, an examination of the published taxonomies, and the ways in which the taxonomies have been or might be adapted for English; and (III) A Behavioral Model for English, includes the philosophical questions plaguing educators

and a proposal for a pedagogically feasible solution to "bridge the gap" between the proponents of behaviorally-stated goals and those favoring more generalized objectives. The proposed alternative is applied to sets of objectives for language arts drawn from numerous sources.

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CHAPTER I

BACKGROUND INFORMATION AND POSITIONS ON BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES: A REVIEW

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

As noted by Lunetta (1972), Walbesser & Eisenberg (1972), and Eisner (1967), the current interest in behaviorally-stated objectives is not a new movement in American education. One of the first proponents of "numerous, definite, and particularized" objectives was Bobbitt who wrote in 1918:

> Human life, however varied, consists in its performance of specific activities. Education that prepares for life is one that prepares definitely and adequately for these specific activities. However numerous and diverse they may be for any social class, they can be discovered. (Walbesser, p. 2)

Tyler, another early advocate, regarded clearly stated objectives as a prerequisite to appropriate measurement. (Walbesser, p. 2)

After the transfer of training theories had been somewhat disproven, educators looked to men like Bobbitt and Tyler for new leadership. Consequently, thousands of specific objectives were written during the 1920's. With the advent of Dewey and the Progressive Education Movement, emphasis shifted from the massive bulk of specific objectives written by individuals outside the

immediate learning environment to procedures for meeting the needs of the individual student.

After World War II, curricula increasingly acquired a technological orientation. Sputnik, technical training in the military, programmed instruction, the teaching machine movement, and university-wide examinations, which forced faculty and examiners to state course objectives in measurable terms, contributed to the revival of interest in behaviorally-stated educational objectives.

The current interest in objectives-based accountability was attributed by Barro (1970) to: The new federally stimulated emphasis on evaluation of school systems and their programs; the growing tendency to look at educational enterprises in terms of cost effectiveness; the increasing concentration on education for the disadvantaged as a priority of responsibility; and the movement to make school systems more directly responsible to their clientele and communities.

Many opponents of behaviorally-stated objectives and accountability, for example Ruth (1972), have emphasized the government's role in this movement, but as noted, the first rumblings did not begin with the computer or McNamara, but could be heard as far back in educational history as 1918 when Bobbitt called for "definite and particularized objectives."

DEFINITION OF BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES

While educators currently talk about behavioral or performance objectives rather than "definite and particularized objec-

tives," the meaning is basically the same. The Tri-University Project on Performance Objectives in English defined performance objectives* as "statements about desirable outcomes of educational interaction, phrased in terms of what learners should be able to do as a result of the interaction." (Hook, et al., 1971, p. 5)

Behavioral objectives are, in effect, verbal descriptions of what students will be able to do after completing a prescribed unit of instruction. Lindley (1971) prefaced his definition of behavioral objectives with a statement of what they do not represent: "They are not something out of Machiavelli, by way of Skinner, by way of an HAL 9,000 computer. Rather they are carefully worded definitions of what you should be working for, namely, change." (p. 4)

A well-structured behavioral or performance objective should include:

1. The LEARNER (express objectives in terms of learner, not teacher, behaviors).
2. The OBSERVABLE ACTION i.e. verb (avoid general, abstract terms like appreciate).
3. The CONDITION or context in which the student will perform.
4. The STANDARD or CRITERION MEASURE of success. (Gagne, 1965)

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*The Tri-University staff deliberately avoids the term behavioral objective and instead uses performance objective because of the limited meaning of "behavior" as "being good" or "not misbehaving," because of "the association in many minds with behavioral psychology and pigeons learning to peck for a reward;" and because performance connotes doing.

A complete behavioral objective would be written to include these four elements:

Given an opportunity to explore three different
(CONDITION)

ethnic neighborhoods,/ the student/ will orally
(LEARNER) (ACTION)

report on/ at least one non-verbal communication
(CRITERION)

observed in each.

This general definition of a behavioral objective, when considered in the perspective of a larger hierarchy of objectives, is critical for reaching a compromise between the advocates and opponents of behaviorally-stated goals.

SUMMARY OF ARGUMENTS FOR AND AGAINST BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES

The advocates and opponents of behavioral objectives set forth numerous arguments for their respective positions. Hopefully, a complete examination of these arguments will, in part, resolve the issue.

Statements Favoring Behavioral Objectives

Trow (1967) contended that "Behavioral objectives should have first priority in the development of educational technology. Without them all else is meaningless....The chief contribution of programming may very well turn out to be the emphasis it gave and still gives to this phase of the instructional process." (p. 6)

Kapfer (1970) pointed out that in the many decades general, non-behavioral objectives have been used, students have not been given choices--except to do or not to do what the teacher directed. He asked "Who needs behavioral objectives?" and responded to his own question: "Students. Behavioral objectives are a tool which let students know where they are going so that they can then make intelligent choices concerning how they will get there." (p. 14)

Lindley (1971) exposed the fallacy of the "time-bomb theory," a favorite of Miss Fidditch who says: "You may not like it now, but when you're older . . ." Such a statement is not only an escape from accountability, but is also rather presumptuous, since "We cannot know what values will matter if consciousness itself is changing from one generation to the next. Therefore, we should pay more attention to what we can do now." (p. 2)

Proponents[1] of behavioral objectives listed several advantages for their use:

1. The breaking down of broad goals into specific behaviors is useful for curriculum building; it gives both teachers and students a clear sense of purpose: "Appreciating literature is a desirable objective, but of little value as a guide for planning what to do from 10:10 to 10:25 on Tuesday." (Haberman, 1968, p. 91)

2. Teachers can present objectives to individual students at the beginning of instruction, provide appropriate alternatives to help them attain the objectives, and clearly determine what the students have accomplished.

3. From clearly stated behavioral objectives teachers can devise a pretest to assess the entry skills of their students, thereby avoiding repetition of learning and allowing for increased individualization.

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[1]Advantages drawn from Airasian (1970), Cox (1971), Haberman (1968), Lunetta (1972), Myers (1971), and Popham (1968).

4. When a teacher knows precisely what terminal behavior is desired, it is possible to arrange for appropriate practice opportunities during the instructional sequence.

5. Since there are alternative methods of meeting a specific objective, and since the end result of instruction is more important than the means employed, behavioral objectives should result in more varied instructional and evaluation methods.

6. Teachers who employ behavioral objectives will be able to objectively assess their own teaching strategies and materials and will have a basis for deciding what should be changed and improved.

Statements Opposing Behavioral Objectives

Ruth (1972) attacked the PPBS system and praised the efforts of California English teachers who played a large role in convincing the California legislature not to adopt the entire system for California schools.

> The issue appears to be "to plan or not to plan" when actually it is a refusal to accept a restrictive inadequate planning methodology in place of creative flexible approaches. . . .Accountability and planning: yes--but, English style; Systemthink or Pentagon-inspired PPBS system approaches: No, in thunder! (pp. 67 & 100)

Greater support for this argument would be provided if Ruth conceptualized and expanded what is meant by "English-style planning;" it is a precise statement of how to effectively plan that is desperately needed by English teachers.

Ferguson's (1971) attack was representative of many of the arguments put forth by both sides--ill tempered and emotionally based: "To transplant into education, techniques devised in the training of rats, to equate conditioning and education, and to assume only a quantitative difference between the learning of rats and people are unlikely undertakings indeed." (p. 52)

Moffett (1970), whose text, Teaching the Universe of Discourse, is often viewed almost religiously by English teachers, has advanced the cause of the anti-objectives people. In his resignation from the Tri-University Project, he cautioned English teachers to fight the movement toward behaviorally-stated goals because behavioral objectives could not do justice to the goals of English; published behavioral objectives could be dangerous; and the whole movement could set a bad precedent for future relations between government and education.

Eisner (1967) introduced two criticisms which have far-reaching implications for English: Proponents of behavioral objectives imply that the degree of specificity possible in stating educational objectives is the same for all subject matters; and, by implying that the formulation of objectives should be the first step in curriculum development, proponents have confused the logical with the psychological aspects of educational planning.

Many proponents specifically answered the charges against the use of behavioral objectives.

ARGUMENTS AGAINST	RESPONSES
1. Prespecifying behavior is undemocratic and dehumanizing.	Teachers have always worked toward goals in the classroom. Schools would not receive support if they deviated too far from the goals of the larger society.
2. Prespecification does not provide for individual differences; instead, one very long list of very specific behaviors is required of every student in each course.	A pre-assessment of entry skills would indicate those objectives students can already meet and whether they possess the necessary entry skills for working towards a given objective. Though objectives are prespecified, there are alternative activities which could be used to assist students in achieving their objectives, and from which students could select those which best meet their individual needs.
3. Trained or programmed behavior has only the narrowest potential for transfer and damages creativity.	No empirical evidence exists regarding the influence of behavioral objectives in instruction on the transfer of learning. Such an assumption should be based on research.
4. Prespecification of explicit goals may prevent the teacher from taking advantage of unexpected instructional opportunities.	Spontaniety which contributes to learning is always welcome, should be encouraged, and can occur within the context of instruction based on prespecified objectives.
5. Teachers rarely specify their goals in behavioral terms; such goals seem unrealistic.	Because they don't, doesn't support the contention that they shouldn't. Learning will be enhanced if both teachers and students have a clear idea of what they hope to accomplish.[2]

[2]Empirical studies dealing with the question of providing students with objectives prior to instruction is reviewed in Section III.

ARGUMENTS AGAINST	RESPONSES
6. Measurability implies accountability. Teachers may be judged on their ability to assist students in attaining behavioral objectives.	Most experienced researchers recognize that though the instructional means may vary considerably from one teacher to another, both may accomplish identical ends with equal success. Means is not a valid criteria for success because it's such an individual variable. Instead of being judged on the idiosyncratic whims of a visiting supervisor, teachers using behavioral objectives can show that they teach efficiently in terms of pupils' actual attainments. (Popham, 1968)
7. Teachers do not have time or training to develop adequate systems or behavioral objectives.	In-service training where teachers can learn to write objectives for their own classes should be provided. "The search for 'ideal' methods is abandoned and teachers have the simpler job of identifying particular strategies for moving particular pupils to demonstrate particular objectives." (Haberman, 1968, p. 92) Further, banks of instructional objectives should be established so that, where appropriate, teachers can select rather than produce objectives.
8. The most significant outcomes of education are in the affective domain and are, therefore, very difficult to operationalize and define.	A number of responses were found to this major criticism. Representative respondents indicated that it is more difficult to define affective behaviors, but that because it is difficult, does not mean that it cannot be accomplished: a. "We claim that things like 'appreciation' cannot be defined. But parents and administrators want to know what we're up to if we can't define it, and rightfully so. If we can't or won't define what we are doing, the next step is for them to define it for us and tell us how to measure it; and that is exactly what is happening with predictably disastrous results. The stupid and trivial objectives that are being produced are not caused by behavioral objectives; such a formulation only vividly demonstrates the triviality and absurdity of what is already going on in too many classrooms--indeed what has been going on for too many years but has never seemed so terrible because no one actually sat down and specified what it was." (Seybold, 1972, p. 117)

ARGUMENTS AGAINST	RESPONSES
	b. It is difficult to judge an essay examination, but since teachers do make judgments, some kind of criteria exists which must be made explicit. c. If we must wait five or ten years to determine success, what if we've failed? What then? d. There is very little correlation between goals that English teachers profess and the daily goings on in their classrooms. (The Squire Appleby Study, cited by Shugert, 1968)
Drawn from: Arnstine (1964), Ebel (1970), Ferguson (1971), Maloney (1972), Squire (1972), and Ulin (1971).	Drawn from: Airasian (1970), Finder (1969), Krathwohl (1965), Lindley (1971), Montague and Butts (1968), Morreau (1972), Popham (1968), and Seybold (1972).

The preceding statements, indicative of the emotional commitment educators feel toward their respective positions, should serve as a cautionary note to those who are attempting to resolve the issue of whether or not to employ behavioral objectives in English education. The implications which any decision will have on individual students, on the language arts as a discipline, and on society in general must be carefully considered.

THE POSITION OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

Because many English teachers at the elementary, secondary, and college levels look to their professional organization--The National Council of Teachers of English--for leadership on philosophical and pedagogical questions affecting the discipline, it is relevant to examine the NCTE's position statement and current publications on the subject of behavioral objectives.

Statement of the 1971 Commission on the English Curriculum

In May, 1971, the Commission on the English Curriculum issued a policy statement recommending a broad perspective on goals and accountability, calling the trend toward behavioral objectives and accountability "the threat of a narrowly defined 'measurable' curriculum and the spectre of teachers defensively limiting themselves to the superficial aspects of literacy in language and literature." The Commission concluded with the statement that some components of English instruction, particularly those in the affective domain, cannot be measured at the time of instruction, if at all.

The Commission's statement appears to support the practice of English teachers "doing their thing," trying to serve their own sense of subject matter and their students' sense of themselves and their futures.

In addition to this policy statement, the NCTE recently published two books on the topic of behavioral objectives: On Writing Behavioral Objectives for English, 1970, edited by John Maxwell and Anthony Tovatt, and Accountability and the Teaching of English, 1972, edited by Henry B. Maloney. These books are the basic references currently available on the subject of behavioral objectives for English. Each is prefaced with a statement from the NCTE Commission on the English Curriculum.

The 1969 Commission's statement (Maxwell & Tovatt, 1970) is not as strongly worded as the statement prepared by the Commission in 1971 (Maloney, 1972). Since there seems to be little evidence in either Accountability and the Teaching of English or the liter-

ature which warrants this discrepancy, it must be attributed to the personal biases of the 1971 Commission members.

On Writing Behavioral Objectives for English

A narrative concerning the events in "anytown," where an in-service program has been organized to prepare for behaviorally-oriented instruction prefaces the articles in On Writing Behavioral Objectives for English. Not coincidentally, the consulting systems man is named Mr. McNemar. The narrative, objectively written, includes a number of the arguments for and against behavioral objectives. The tone of the book is set by the heroine's concluding statements that "Behavioral objectives are like spinach, not very palatable, but possibly nourishing." and "I've been around long enough to know we haven't been terribly successful in meeting our objectives. I doubt the behavioral objectives approach will do much harm." (p. 39). Included in the text is Moffett's strong anti-behavioral objectives position, along with Seybold's response. Although the book is titled On Writing Behavioral Objectives for English, it is not a "how to" book--it does not provide teachers with a model for writing behavioral objectives. It does, however, provide new insights into the philosophical and pedagogical questions plaguing English instruction and would be an effective initial source for English teachers attempting to become acquainted with the controversy surrounding the use of behavioral objectives. Its value for an English teacher who must convert general goals into behavioral terms is highly questionable.

Zoellner's Critique of On Writing Behavioral Objectives for English

Robert Zoellner (1972) wrote a scathing critique of On Writing Behavioral Objectives for English:

> WBOE stands as a superb example of the conviction, widely entertained in the profession that scientific matters, when you really get down to it, can, with a little effort and careful exploitation of the resources of ordinary language, be handled unscientifically--poetically, metaphorically, analogistically. . . . Their discussion of the validity or invalidity of behavioral objectives in English tends to be . . . 'stultifying' rather than 'illuminating.' (pp. 421-22)

Accountability and the Teaching of English

Accountability and the Teaching of English is prefaced with a statement by the 1971 Commission on the English Curriculum with an added cautionary note from Maloney. The book is generally more practical than On Writing Behavioral Objectives for English in that teachers reading the articles by Morreau, Seybold, and Forehand can find answers to questions about the use of behavioral objectives and the conversion of general objectives into behavioral terms. The article by Morreau is especially useful since it "bridges the gap" between the humanists and the behaviorists by maintaining the best of both types of objectives, general and behavioral.[3]

Seybold included sample objectives from the Tri-University Project and an explanation of their rationale for formulating objectives--a hierarchy consisting of a general goal, a performance objective and a representative-enabling objective.

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[3]His proposed model will be discussed at some length in section three.

Forehand stressed the important role evaluation should play in assisting teachers to make curricular and instructional decisions and suggests three principles which educators might consider as they attempt to resolve their conflict with authorities outside the school who insist on some kind of criteria for responsibility.

The anti-behavioral objectives position was taken by Purves (1972) in "The Robot in the Open Classroom" and by Ruth (1972) in "Dangers of Systemthink in Education." Purves' article added little to the material discussed in the Maxwell book. Ruth, however, presented the philosophical aspects of the controversy, and should serve as a valuable source for any English teacher who is attempting to formulate feasible solutions to the apparent conflict between humanism and behaviorism.

Zoellner's (1972) "S-R versus S-R-R: The Problem of Behavioral Objectives" contained a review of On Writing Behavioral Objectives for English (OWBOE) as well as a statement on the significant differences between a stimulus-response orientation and a stimulus-response-reinforcement orientation. He contended that the teacher's role as a reinforcer, which is inherent in behavioral objectives, was completely overlooked by the author of OWBOE, and that a reinforcement-centered psychology is the only behavioral psychology that will suffice for an English classroom.

Squire (1972), in the concluding article in the book, reinforced the Commission's statement in the preface. The underlying and unproven assumption on which he based this article was that behaviorally-stated goals cannot be humane: "To use language to shape and, hence, to control one's experience, to be sensitive

to the powerful nuances implicit in the use of everyday language and to the richness and vibrancy of language put to aesthetic purpose--these are the humane goals" (p. 147). And who would argue with these goals? The question which comes to mind, however, is "How do I do it?" and "How do I know I've done it?"

CONCLUSION

It is apparent that English teachers cannot turn to the literature for a firm answer to the philosophical and pedagogical problem of stating instructional objectives. The current literature provides only limited information which will help in the difficult task of deciding whether to state objectives in behavioral terms, which is, after all, not a question of technique but of value: "Under the rug of technique lies an image of man" (Eisner, p. 8). Ultimately, this rug must be pulled back by individual teachers, who cannot continue to sweep the philosophical nature of the problem under the carpet of pedagogy. But, before a thorough cleaning is initiated, it would be worthwhile to review the existing empirical evidence supporting the positions to use or not to use behavioral objectives.

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CHAPTER II

EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE AND THE TAXONOMIES

EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE

Since many school systems are solving their educational "cost-effectiveness" problems by converting their general instructional objectives to objectives stated in terms of measurable student behaviors, it seems only logical to assume that such objectives not only clarify the accountability question, but also in some way facilitate learning. And yet, when the empirical evidence is surveyed, there exists a paucity of data to support this premise. Several critical questions need to be asked:

1. Do behaviorally-stated objectives increase the amount of student learning, decrease the time required, and/or improve the retention period?

2. Does the amount of reinforcement implied in behaviorally-stated objectives improve the students' self-image and increase motivation?

3. Would instruction based on general goals or instruction based on behaviorally-stated objectives be preferred by teachers and students and for what reasons?

4. Do behaviorally-stated objectives restrict the transfer of learning.

5. Do behavioral objectives facilitate teachers' and students' selection of appropriate learning activities?

While these questions have not been adequately answered by educational research, a number of studies do provide information which has direct implications for structuring the English curriculum.

Research on the Effects of Providing Students with Objectives Prior to Instruction

The effects of providing students with objectives prior to instruction was the subject of several studies. Engel (1968) investigated the hypothesis that knowledge of objectives in behavioral terms increases achievement. Students in early childhood and elementary education programs were assigned to two treatments, one with behavioral objectives and one without. Both groups received the same instructional materials, except that the treatment group received units with an attached cover sheet stating the objectives of instruction in terms of learner behaviors. The findings supported the hypothesis: Those who received objectives in advance showed increased achievement and also scored higher on a retention test.

Similar findings were reported by Doty (1968) who conducted a study with junior high school industrial arts students. One significant finding of his study was that students in three ability groups who practiced a specific skill but did not receive knowledge of the objectives had low immediate learning as compared to those receiving the specific objectives before practice.

Dalis (1970) also investigated the effects of student knowledge of objectives on achievement with one hundred and forty-three tenth grade students from five health and safety classes

taught by the same teacher. One-third of each class was randomly assigned to one of three treatments: (1) Precisely-stated instructional objectives; (2) vaguely-stated instructional objectives; or (3) short paragraphs of health information. Students who received precisely-stated objectives showed the greatest achievement. Dalis further reported that the group given the precise objectives selected more appropriate activities than the group which received vague objectives. Dalis compiled a list of twelve advantages of providing students with instructional objectives in advance. Behavioral objectives: (1) Help the learner identify the required terminal performance; (2) motivate students, which results in increased learner effort, attention and readiness to learn; (3) facilitate exploration of learning alternatives and provide direction for exploration; (4) result in greater commitment by learners to ends and help him discriminate between relevant and irrelevant learning material to meet those ends; (5) actively engage learners in utilizing prior knowledge; and (6) provide a motive for specific rather than random learner behaviors.

Jenkins and Deno (1971) conducted a study to determine the empirical validity of the assumption that providing teachers and/or students with general or specific instructional objectives increases the amount learned during a fixed time. One hundred and twelve students, volunteers from a sophomore educational psychology course, participated in seven groups, with sixteen education seniors from an upper level educational psychology course serving as teachers. The results of the study did not support the assumption. Three possible explanations for the results were set forth in the conclusion:

1. Type and knowledge of objectives were insignificant variables because they received inadequate attention from both teachers and students. Perhaps neither recognized their value or knew how to use them.

2. Teachers and students can probably understand the objectives from the content when curriculum materials are designed to facilitate attainment of particular behavioral objectives. If so, specific objectives will influence learning only indirectly through their influence on the design of curricular materials.

3. It is difficult to empirically test the hypothesis that behaviorally-stated objectives improve instruction.

Walbesser and Eisenberg (1972) provided brief summaries of representative studies conducted to test the hypothesis that student knowledge of objectives prior to instruction improved performance. While the reported studies did not deal specifically with English, Walbesser concluded that the literature generally offered cautious support for the hypothesis.

The limited empirical support for providing students with learning objectives prior to instruction has direct implications for the teaching of English. How often have teachers bragged about being "tough graders" or about constructing essay examinations on which there were no A's, as though they took pride in what their students didn't learn? Perhaps if objectives were given prior to instruction there wouldn't be any "tough graders" and students could approach their "exams" with confidence that they knew the test material. Neither the behaviorists nor the humanists select methods or materials in a vacuum; both have objectives, if not written down, at least in mind. Research seems

to indicate that these instructional intents should be communicated to students.

Research on How the Use of Behavioral Objectives Affects Student Learning

Baker (1967) in "The Differential Effect of Behavioral and Nonbehavioral Objectives Given to Teachers on the Achievement of Their Students" randomly assigned eighteen Nevada social science teachers to one of three treatments: Group 1 received five nonbehavioral objectives; Group 2 received five behavioral objectives randomly selected from a larger list; and Group 3 received behavioral objectives selected by educational experts for transfer-inducing potential. The five nonbehavioral objectives were written on topics dealing with social science research methods. Twenty-three behavioral objectives were then written for the five general goals. Each treatment group received a list of five objectives, a resource unit, a sealed test packet and a questionnaire. While the results indicated no statistically significant differences between groups, the random behavioral objectives group performed better than the other groups. Results of the questionnaire and the percentage of activities which were selected appropriate for the objectives indicated that teachers did not attend to the behavioral aspect of the objectives.

Popham (1967) compared the ability of experienced teachers with the ability of inexperienced housewives and college students to accomplish prespecified behavioral goals and found that experienced teachers are not more experienced at accomplishing prespecified behavioral goals than non-teachers.

These studies (Baker and Popham) would seem to indicate that teachers must be taught more than the procedures for writing behavioral objectives. They should be taught to both recognize behavioral objectives and plan activities for achieving them. Before the value of behavioral objectives can be assessed, teachers must be committed to achieving behavioral changes and must be reinforced by administrators for pupil attainments.

McNeill (1967) reported that pupils taught by student teachers who were told that their grades would depend upon setting and achieving acceptable behavioral objectives with their students acheived better than pupils taught by student teachers who were told that their grade would depend upon preparing good lesson plans and using professional teaching methods. McNeill also reported that the focus on specific objectives did not appear to restrict the students to meeting only the stated objectives any more than the students who were not given behavioral objectives, though no quantitative measure was made.

Halvorson (1969) found no significant difference between the objective knowledge of sociology learned and retained by groups taught by the systems approach method (based on Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives) and the lecture/discussion method. However, the lack of difference may not be singularly due to the instructional method in that the control groups were not homogeneous. Uncontrolled variables such as the individual instructor, class size, and time of day may have influenced the results.

The research on how behavioral objectives affect student learning would indicate that before a valid assessment can be made, teachers participating in experiments must learn to understand and effectively use behavioral objectives. It cannot be assumed that teachers who have traditionally been most concerned about methods will automatically shift their emphasis to the achievement of desired student behaviors.

Research on the Semantics of Behavioral Objectives

Deno and Jenkins (1969) conducted a study to test the assumption that the controversy about behavioral and nonbehavioral terms is a semantic problem. They hypothesized that if polar extremes of a continuum of observability are established and native speakers are asked to locate a set of labels on that continuum, then words such as "write," "say," and "underline" will fall towards the easily-observed pole, while such words as "know," "understand," and "appreciate" will tend to fall toward the difficult-to-observe pole. They also predicted that many of the words used in writing behavioral objectives, e.g. "identify," "solve," and "distinguish," are not clear cases of observability or unobservability and would be judged at some intermediate position on the continuum.

Eleven teachers rated ninety-nine verbs including fifty-four from widely-cited experimental behavioral objectives. The results were consistent with the predictions. The authors concluded that much of the controversy about behavioral and nonbehavioral objectives could be minimized if teachers think in

terms of observability rather than behaviorality. They advised department members to arrive at some common definitions when stating objectives in behavioral terms.

Research on Behavioral Objectives and Language Arts Instruction

Langlois (1970) used student themes (poorly and well-written themes which were paired, read, discussed, and compared) rather than professional models in teaching Freshman composition; a control group was taught using the instructor's conventional method. Themes of both experimental and control groups were judged according to predetermined criterion contained in a behavioral objective. Results showed the comparative method was effective for teaching some kinds of themes and ineffective for others. It was further concluded that "the behavioral objective used to measure and evaluate both sets of themes proved to be the greatest contribution of the project." (p. 20)

Hook (1971) reported on a preliminary version of a Catalog of Representative Performance Objectives in English for Grades 9-12, which had been tested in twenty-four schools. Participating teachers generally agreed that performance objectives do have value in secondary English is indicated by representative comments such as: "I want to be sure to use this again next year." "My students have been more interested in English this year." and "Students took more initiative."

Hook suggested that mathematical measurement was imappropriate for several segments of the English curriculum, particularly literature, and instead recommended indirect and cumulative mea-

sures such as class contribution, individual projects, extensiveness of reading, and voluntary speaking and writing.

Rippey (1968) reported on a composition experiment conducted in eight tenth and eleventh grade English classes with one hundred and forty above-average students. The experiment was initiated by seven English teachers who sequentially outlined their writing strategies. The sequences were gathered and arranged into "writing maps" and taught to students by means of either an "errorless" approach, consisting of highly structured lessons which allowed for only a minimal number of errors, or a "dialectal" approach, which relied on the student's ability to recognize or discover the important characteristics of the lesson. Each unit of instruction, built around a model paragraph, followed four steps: (1) Presentation of the model, (2) presentation of the lesson, using the dialectal or errorless approach, (3) presentation of the writing "maps" and (4) supervised writing--with students following the "map" closely at first and, as they became more skillful, modifying it. A minimum of six one-week units were taught in each experimental class. The progress of the students was examined before and after instruction. The investigators reported considerable changes in the students' scores for both instructional methods over a one-year period with no differences between students using the two approaches. Unfortunately, a control group with teachers using traditional teaching methods was not used. However, other teachers noticed an improvement in their seniors over previous years, particularly in skills such as topic sentence, transition words, and sentence variety, all of which

had been included in the units. The sample lessons included in the appendix of this report might be helpful to teachers who are writing behavioral objectives for composition units. Also, the rating scale used in this experiment might prove useful to teachers who are attempting to escape the "foggy" criterion frequently applied to evaluating compositions.

Hess (1972) reported positive results from an individualized, objectives-based approach to freshman English. Based on an analysis of anticipated student performance after completion of a freshman English course covering literature, composition, and the writing of research papers, as well as areas of interest specified by former students, Hess formulated the course objectives. An objectives-based pretest was designed to determine each student's entry-level skills. Students who were not prepared to meet entry requirements were given supplementary programmed units. The specific objectives, the sequenced materials, and the self-instructional units designed to meet the objectives, including both self-tests and criteria for self-evaluation, were then presented to the students.

Students proceeded at their own rates in meeting their objectives, aided through personal discussions with the instructor. Five students completed the ten-week course in six weeks; two required fourteen weeks. Evaluation was based on a final examination for which students had specifically prepared on unit criteria checks. The grades for the twenty-seven were not derived from group comparison but were based upon individual achievement of prespecified goals. The average gain per student in skill/

knowledge in three areas (literature, composition, and research papers) was fifty-five points, with 44.9 percent of the students receiving a grade of A; 25.9 percent B; 14.8 percent C; 7.4 percent D; no F's and 3.7 percent I (These were subsequently completed.).

The instructor asked the students to anonymously respond to a series of questions related to the course. A summary of results is included below.

RATING SCALE: Excellent 1 — Poor 5	
How do you feel about the effectiveness of the program on literature?	1.2
How do you feel about the effectiveness of the program on composition?	1.6
How do you feel about the effectiveness of the program on the research paper?	1.2
How well have your individual problems been met by the programs?	1.6
Have you received enough help from the instructor? Was it adequate?	1.1
How would you rate this course in comparison to other courses you have taken?	1.4

Students' comments included:

> Each unit covers only one or two objectives at a time. This synthesizes and intensifies each objective.
>
> Leaving responsibility of getting help to the student is a good idea.
>
> I was surprised that I learned so much from this method.
>
> Students could work as fast as they needed to. They could finish when they wanted to.

> I liked having programmed English for a night class. It's better than three long hours of lecture and discussion.
>
> I feel competent when I complete exercises that I am learning and meeting required objectives which I think are well-rounded and purposeful.
>
> Because of the repetition of developing skills, it became a natural learning process and productive.
>
> I enjoy the self-disciplined manner of the course.
>
> I did not like the programmed method initially, but found myself gaining skills by the repetition. I felt it to be very well organized.

The student responses contradict the fear that behaviorally-based programmed instruction is impersonal, manipulative, and, therefore, inhumane. The growth reflected in the pre- and post-test scores speaks for the success of the materials. However, it should be noted that most teachers could not produce such an objectives-based programmed course without acquiring new information. Even with the necessary knowledge, the required time is generally not available. While this data clearly demonstrated that objectives-based instruction can be appropriate for the teaching of English, similar research needs to be conducted before firm decisions are made about the value of behavioral objectives for English instruction.

The available empirical evidence leaves several important questions unanswered. But as noted by Eisner (1969), even if empirical research does prove conclusively that behavioral objectives do or do not facilitate learning "as long as individuals in

the educational field aspire toward different educational goals, there can be no single set of research findings that will satisfy an individual who holds educational values different from those toward which the research was directed." He continues:

> While we can properly ask, for example, whether a clear statement of objectives on the part of the teacher facilitates curriculum planning, teaching, or student learning, and while, in principle, we can secure data to answer such questions, the significance of the answer depends not merely on the adequacy and precision of the research undertaken but on the goals toward which the educational program was directed. If education is seen as the practice of an art in which children have an opportunity to work as young apprentices with someone who himself is inquiring into a problem for which he has no answer, the relevance of concepts like terminal behavior, educational product, and deployment to learning stations, as well as research bearing upon them is likely to be considered beside the point educationally (p. 10).

Though the empirical evidence is inconclusive, rational analysis indicates that there are advantages to using behavioral objectives for instruction in English. Whether or not these are advantages is, as Eisner points out, in large measure dependent on one's definition of education, an issue which will be discussed in the third section of this study.

Teachers who decide to use behaviorally-stated objectives should be familiar with the available methods for converting general objectives into behavioral terms.

THE TAXONOMIES

The educational taxonomies were developed in response to the need for a classification system which would provide a common format for curriculum development and evaluation without requiring

the standardization of curriculum. The need for classification procedures was first recognized by a group of college examiners directed by Benjamin Bloom (1956). They conducted an analysis of the overt behaviors implied in their own teaching objectives as well as those found in educational literature. These overt behaviors were subdivided in terms of increasing complexity (cognitive domain) or increasing internalization (affective domain). Each domain was hierarchal in nature, progressing from simple to complex, concrete to abstract, e.g. defining a metaphor would be placed at a lower level of complexity than explaining how a metaphor enriches the meaning of a poem, a higher level skill.

The cognitive, affective, and psychomotor hierarchies did not consist of the student behaviors teachers <u>should</u> include in their planning, but instead, specified the ones they <u>do</u> include. The overt behaviors are indicators of whether or not students have reached specified objectives; they are not the objectives themselves.

Five classification systems for educational goals have been developed: Taxonomies for the cognitive, affective, and psychomotor domains were delineated by Bloom (1956) and Krathwohl, Bloom, and Masia (1964); Moore (1970) proposed a taxonomy of perception; and Sullivan (1969) identified six performance terms for the classification of learner behaviors.

The stated purposes of the taxonomies written by Bloom, et. al. were:

1. To make intents communicable and avoid semantic barriers. Using a common vocabulary, educators can achieve concensus about goals and make goals more cumulative.

2. To be comprehensive enough to categorize all the objectives now in use.

3. To provide a basis for measuring abstract (affective) and concrete (cognitive) competencies.

4. To provide a classification of goals in terms of student behavior.

5. To provide a very general basis for judicious selection from a myriad of desirable educational goals.

6. To provide a framework for comparing and studying educational programs--to help organize the literature.

The Cognitive Domain

The majority of objectives fell into the cognitive domain which emphasized remembering or reproducing something which had been learned. Cognitive objectives varied from simple recall of learned materials to highly original and creative synthesizing of learned ideas. There were six main levels under which cognitive behaviors could be classified:

(simplest)	1.0	Knowledge
	2.0	Intellectual abilities and skills
	3.0	Application
	4.0	Analysis
	5.0	Synthesis
(most complex)	6.0	Evaluation

For purposes of curriculum planning, each of the six levels were subdivided into specific sublevels, which were also sequenced in a hierarchal order, and presented with representative objectives.

The Affective Domain

Krathwohl, Bloom, and Masia (1964) found the second major category of objectives were in the affective domain, i.e. containing emotional overtones and encompassing likes and dislikes, at-

titudes, values and beliefs. Krathwohl contended that teachers emphasize the importance of this domain during course conception, but that affective goals rarely influenced course direction or choice of instructional activities. He attributed this "erosion" of course objectives to: Grading systems, i.e. teachers do not feel affective objectives are "fair game for grading;" slow attainment of affective objectives; and overemphasis of cognitive behaviors, e.g. emphasis on literary history and knowledge of the details of literary works may produce an aversion to literature or a low level interest. Because of the emotional characteristics of behaviors in this domain, a hierarchal order was more difficult to establish. The evaluation of these behaviors required the development of new strategies, e.g. structured or unstructured interviews, open-ended questions such as "If I had a $100 bill, I would. . .," questionnaires, or a semantic differential.

The expressed goals of most language arts teachers could be classified under the five general categories and their subdivisions in the affective domain:

1.0 Receiving (attending)
    1.1 Awareness
    1.2 Willingness to receive
    1.3 Controlled or selected attention
2.0 Responding
    2.1 Acquiescence in responding
    2.2 Willingness to respond
    2.3 Satisfaction in response
3.0 Valuing
    3.1 Acceptance of a value
    3.2 Preference for a value
    3.3 Commitment (conviction)
4.0 Organization
    4.1 Conceptualization of a value
    4.2 Organization of a value system
5.0 Characterization by a value or value complex
    5.1 Generalized set
    5.2 Characterization

(p. 35)

The Psychomotor Domain

The least number of objectives were classified in the psychomotor domain. The psychomotor domain, emphasizing muscular or motor skills, manipulation of materials and objects, and acts requiring neuro-muscular co-ordination, can be divided into four major categories:

1.0 Gross bodily movements
2.0 Finely coordinated movements
3.0 Non-verbal communication behaviors
4.0 Speech behaviors

The objectives were generally related to handwriting, speech, physical education and trade or technical courses.

Because of the overlap in the three taxonomies, it would be difficult to ascribe a given teaching goal to a specific category. For example, a teacher who requested that students memorize Hamlet's "to be or not to be" might appear to be developing behavior in the cognitive domain, but if the underlying reasons for memorizing the passage were explored, the objective might be classified in the affective domain. The performance process itself has some implications for the psychomotor domain. Though an objective can usually be placed in one of the three classes, no objective is devoid of components of the other two.

The behaviors listed in the three taxonomies were intended to be inclusive enough to cover the goals of any subject area. If the explanations of each category and subcategory are considered, the long-range affective goals of English appear to be accounted for. While it seems highly unlikely that English teachers will numerically categorize the terminal behaviors for each of their units, a familiarity with the taxonomies would be helpful in

defining goals more carefully. Also, general classification of goals after planning may prevent excessive emphasis of either low-level behaviors for which students are already prepared or high-level behaviors for which they are insufficiently prepared. A goal which does not clearly fit a specific category is not necessarily one which should be discarded. The taxonomies are intended to serve teachers, not vice versa. With these cautions in mind, English teachers should find the taxonomies useful, not so much as a basis for setting goals, but rather as a means for evaluating the clarity and the complexity of already specified outcomes.

The Perceptual Motor Domain

Though the Bloom and Krathwohl taxonomies are probably the most widely used educational classification systems, there have been other attempts to delineate classroom goals. Moore (1970) developed a taxonomy of perceptual objectives by classifying sensory-dependent neuromuscular activities. She distinguished between cognition, a passive process involving little environmental interaction, and perception, an active process involving exploratory interaction with the environment. A perceptive person was defined as one who could relate sensory impressions recorded from a stimulus to a store of information derived from past experiences. By definition, the individual becomes analagous to a communication channel where sensory stimuli are input, mental activity is data processing, and the resultant behavior is output. Since, in principle, information contained in both input and output is measurable, Moore reasoned that it should be possible to

obtain a measure of the perceptual process. She concluded that: "The development of a means of evaluating the ability of students to extract information from materials and to process it imaginatively rather than simply to register, store and transmit abstract information appears to be a worthwhile educational goal" (p. 411).

Moore's hierarchy, based on increasingly complex information extraction, included behaviors that depend both on the maturation of the nervous system and the developmental progression as described by Piaget. The perceptual-motor hierarchy was divided into five general classifications:

I. Sensation
II. Figure Perception
III. Symbol Perception
IV. Perception of Meaning
V. Perceptive Performance

Examination of the explanations accompanying Levels I - III of Moore's taxonomy indicated that they may not be applicable to language arts. The perceptions, e.g. "ability to discriminate symmetrical figures" or "ability to identify letters and digits," are extremely low-level skills. Level IV embodies many of the cognitive processes described by Bloom, and Level V includes many of the affective processes described by Krathwohl. However, "demonstration of artistry and creativity in any medium" (Level V - D) is not very useful to an English teacher when trying to precisely define a terminal goal. The three classifications of Krathwohl, Bloom, and Masia would probably be more useful than the perceptual-motor hierarchy for specifying objectives.

Sullivan's Six Performance Terms

Sullivan (1969), in an attempt to more precisely define behavioral outcomes, reduced the ten performance descriptions published by the American Association for the Advancement of Science, modified their definitions, and arrived at six performance terms for the classification of learner behaviors related to cognitive tasks:

1. Identify (select, distinguish between, discriminate between, mark, match)
2. Name (label, list)
3. Describe (define, tell how, tell what happened when)
4. Construct (prepare, draw, make, build)
5. Order (sequence, arrange in order, list in order)
6. Demonstrate (show your work, show the procedure, perform an experiment, perform the steps)

While these performance descriptions would be very useful to teachers attempting to identify precise, measurable verbs, they are limited in that they pertain chiefly to the cognitive domain.

Other Useful Sources

Two additional sources which could be used by teachers when converting general objectives to behavioral terms are Mager's Preparing Instructional Objectives (1962) and Harmes' Behavioral Analysis of Learning Objectives (1969). The latter text includes step-by-step instruction in stating behavioral objectives as well as a glossary of definitions of behavioral verbs and examples of student activities for various subject areas, including the language arts. For example, the word "identify" is defined as: "To indicate selection of an object of a class in response to its

name, by pointing, picking up, underlining, marking or other responses" (p. 14). A sample activity: "Identify a sonnet from among several examples of poetry" (p. 22). This text might enable language arts teachers to formulate common definitions for behavioral outcomes.

The Taxonomies and Language Arts Instruction

Two authors have described the potential relationship between the taxonomies and English instruction.

Shugert (1968) reminded English teachers of the Squire-Appleby Study which revealed startling discrepancies between goals identified by teachers and principals and the instructional emphasis reported by classroom observers. She called for "careful, systematic, and rational examination of and construction of learning objectives. . . .To make intelligent decisions concerning the adoption or rejection of new ideas, we must understand the principles which determine our choices" (p. 4).

She then referred to published materials, specifically Mager's text and the Taxonomies, as sources for clarifying instructional objectives. She criticized Mager's method of beginning with the test and working backward to what must be taught to "pass" it. She contended that the first question should be: "What should the student learn?" and then "What sort of test would indicate he had learned it?"

She indicated that Bloom's and Krathwohl's taxonomies would be more helpful for classifying and evaluating present curricula, but cautioned teachers not to consider the taxonomies as authority

for establishing the value of objectives. The rationale for English objectives should be derived from the nature of the subject matter, the function of the school as a social institution, the nature of the learning process, and the nature of democracy, i.e. students should have some voice in what objectives they will pursue.

Clark (1968) used Bloom's and Krathwohl's taxonomies as a framework for developing a "complete and sequential" literature curriculum. She illustrated how one possible general goal for English programs such as "developing the capacity to judge the literary quality of an unfamiliar work" (in this case poetry), could be sequentially accomplished through the use of Bloom's cognitive taxonomy. She further categorized Bloom's six levels into twenty-three sub-levels. For example, under level 1.0 Knowledge she included:

> 1.11 Definition of meter, rhythm, sonnet, pentameter, anacrusis, and octave,
> 1.12 - 1.31 Lists seven additional sub-categories, and
> 1.32 Theories for evaluating poetry.

At the highest level, 6.0 Evaluation, she included:

> 6.10 Relative merit of two similar poems on the basis of unity, structure, and coherence, and
> 6.20 Quality of a given sonnet in terms of conventions and known good examples of the form (p. 34).

The objectives and the behavioral sequence for the affective domain was phrased in terms of the affective goals of the total English program: "Furthering the understanding of one's self and one's environment through literature." Clark's affective taxonomy included:

At the lowest level Receiving
- 1.10 Notices existence of important literary phenomena
- 1.20 Attends to literature itself and to discussions of it
- 1.30 Notices familiar phenomena in new literary selections

And at the highest level Characterization by Value Complex
- 5.10 Continues to expand contacts with the total environment by reading, discussing, and contemplating ideas in relation to a personal value system
- 5.20 Applies hierarchy of values in all aspects of life and continues to seek further information about man and his environment (p. 40).

Such affective behaviors could not be realized in the course of a single class, a single year, or perhaps not even in the secondary school experience; the sequential development for meeting affective objectives must be individualized. Since levels 4.10 (reads extensively and critically to confirm, resolve or determine the nature of the ideas and the attitudes found in literature) to 5.20 are probably attained quite late in a student's educational development, Clark recommended that teachers reinforce only the first three levels of the hierarchy each year, suggesting that adequate development of the contributing cognitive objectives would provide a secure background for continued affective development.

Clark's attempt to delineate the cognitive and affective goals of language arts instruction in terms of student behaviors is noteworthy because it represents a transition from theorizing about the usefulness of behaviorally-stated goals to applying behavioral objectives to curriculum development and methods. Not all English teachers would agree with the poetry sequencing, but

few could deny that it provides a valuable model for converting general goals of English into specific behaviors.

CONCLUSION

Bloom's and Krathwohl's affective and cognitive taxonomies, together with Clark's application to the language arts appear to be the most useful "tools" for use by English teachers when stating behavioral objectives. Their usefulness lies not in determining the goals of instruction, but rather in clarifying and perhaps evaluating the goals teachers have already selected.

The examination of available methods and their usefulness for the language arts, and the review of the empirical studies, which suggests that objectives stated in terms of measurable student behaviors do facilitate learning, lead to two major questions: Can a philosophical compromise between the humanists and behaviorists be reached? and, If so, can the compromise be implemented pedagogically?

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CHAPTER III

A BEHAVIORAL MODEL FOR ENGLISH

CONTEMPORARY LEARNING THEORIES AND BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES

Eisner's (1969) statement, "Under the rug of technique, lies an image of man," reflects the major quandary when setting objectives. The issue of whether or not to employ behaviorally-stated instructional goals is both a philosophical and a pedagogical problem. The emotional level of the arguments indicates that the spokesmen on both sides of the issue are deeply committed to their personal views of man and the educative process.

The dominant twentieth-century views of the educative process are derived from behavioral and Gestalt psychologies. Bigge (1971), a Gestalt proponent, charted ten learning theories and their implications for education. Three generalizations derived from these psychologies concerning the conception of man, the basis for transfer of learning, and the emphasis in teaching serve to clarify the controversy surrounding the use of behavioral objectives.

Psychology	Conception of Man	Basis for Transfer of Learning	Emphasis in Teaching
Behavioral	Neutral-active*	Reinforced or conditioned responses	"Successive systematic changes in an organisms' environment to increase the probability of desired responses" (p. 10)
Gestalt	Neutral-interactive**	Continuity of experiences or insights	"Help students restructure their life spaces--gain insights into their contemporaneous situations" (p. 10)

*Man is neither intrinsically good or bad, and his characteristics are largely a product of environmental influences.

**Man is neither intrinsically good or bad, and his characteristics result from making sense of his physical and social environment.

Figure 1

Viewing man as a neutral-interactive does not exclude the use of behavioral objectives. Indeed, the assumption that man is neutral-interactive underlies many of the generalized English objectives such as those of Robert Hogan (1970) who compared English teaching to fishing. One throws in the bait ("Stopping by the Woods") and hopes for a bite. If no one nibbles, then some new bait will be used the following day. But what if no one nibbled because they were not prepared for the bait? At such times, the skills or knowledge needed to appreciate a poem like "Stopping by the Woods" might be reassessed and time spent on the development of prerequisite skills. After the bait is reeled in and altered a little, perhaps students will bite and neutral-interactive man will be functioning again. Before a student can integrate

his insight into a poem with his own life experiences, he may need prerequisite skills in reading and understanding poetry. Such skills could be stated and assessed in behavioral terms.

The type of curriculum construction advocated by Hogan does not provide for "continuity of experience or insights" which Gestalt proponents contend is the basis for becoming a neutral-interactive man. "Continuity" implies a total, unfragmented experience. A carefully conceptualized curriculum, which insures that all students have certain prerequisite skills, could eliminate the fragmentation of randomly presented "bait."

A continuum, including four broad learning levels ranging from thoughtful to thoughtless modes of operation, was constructed by Bigge. Each level included the nature of appropriate tests and the method of test evaluation:

> Memory level consisting of measured facts which usually contribute little to effective student growth. This level is teacher-centered. Tests are evaluated on the basis of answers prepared at the time of test construction. This level is attributed to S-R conditioning theorists.
>
> Understanding level seeks to acquaint students with the relationship between a generalization and the particulars and allows for application of principles. This level is also teacher-centered. Tests are evaluated on the basis of prepared answers. Learners can be passive or active but not interactive.
>
> Reflection level enlarges a student's store of tested insights and enhances ability to solve problems independently. This level is teacher-student centered. The ideal means of testing is reflective or problem-centered essay questions with evaluation based on criteria agreed upon prior to the test. This level is attributed to the Gestalt field theorists.

> Autonomous developmental level promotes an intuitive awareness of self. There is no coercion, prescription, or imposition. There is no testing; students judge themselves. This level is attributed to the Neo-progressive movement, neither Gestalt nor behavioral.

The second and third levels of the continuum are emphasized in Piaget's view of the educative process:

> The principal goal of education is to create men who are capable of doing new things, not simply of repeating what other generations have done--men who are creative, inventive and discoverers. The second goal of education is to form minds which can be critical, can verify, and not accept everything they are offered. The great danger today is of slogans, collective opinions, ready-made trends of thought. We have to be able to resist individually, to criticize, to distinguish between what is proven and what is not. So we need pupils who are active, who learn early to find out by themselves, partly by their own spontaneous activity and partly through materials we set up for them. . . (Elkind, 1970, p. 25)

Piaget recognized that students cannot learn to think critically, analytically, and independently without some kind of guidance. In reality, teachers decide what form this guidance should take and what student learnings should be accomplished. Every short story or writing assignment is a reflection of what an English teacher thinks students should know or appreciate. Choices are not made in a vacuum. Goals are pre-specified; materials are "set-up."

Most long-range goals of English are on the autonomous-developmental level, with immediate goals on the understanding or reflection level. Bigge was incorrect in assuming that behaviorally-stated goals can accommodate only memory level objectives. In fact, behaviorally-stated goals can accommodate learning at all four levels, depending on how they are applied.

At the understanding level, objectives would include cognitive behaviors which are prerequisite to many reflection-level learnings. A student who spoke only a standard English and who did not understand language acquisition or the nature of dialects, would probably ridicule his Southern peers, perhaps calling them "ignorant." However, with the prerequisite instruction, the same student could probably arrive at sophisticated conclusions about the different versus deficient hypothesis. The student's understanding of needed prerequisite learnings, in this case an understanding of the nature of dialects, could be measured. A written evaluation could be made on the basis of a behaviorally-stated objective:

> Given a specific situation, a hypothetical nonstandard speech sample, and a check list of descriptors frequently applied to nonstandard dialects, the participant will check those which are linguistically valid (100% criterion level). (Hess, 1972)

The teacher could assess this understanding by observing how the student interacts with nonstandard speakers. Even the opponents of behaviorally-stated objectives recognize that such objectives can be useful for cognitive level learnings.

Reflection-level learnings would include affective behaviors. For example, the student will internalize his insights about the nature of Southern dialect and apply these insights to another dialect he encounters. If a foreign student joined his class, the student who had integrated his understanding about dialects would not laugh or imitate the foreign speaker's speech, but would communicate a feeling of acceptance to the new student. At the re-

flection level, behaviorally-stated objectives serve as "indicators" of whether students have internalized and processed cognitive-level objectives.

Behaviorally-stated objectives in the affective domain should not be fixed for all students. A wide range of objectives should be available so students can select those most suited to their individual needs and interests. If none of the objectives are appropriate, the teacher and student should jointly formulate new objectives and specify criterion for evaluation. Behavioral objectives would be highly conducive to individualization of this kind.

The question then is not whether behavioral objectives should be used, but how they should be applied. It has been demonstrated that behavioral objectives are appropriate at all levels of Bigge's continuum, if they are correctly applied. Behavior for behavior's sake is obviously a "dead-end" to an individual's neutral-interactive development, but behavior placed within a larger view of the educative process requires that teachers and students assess whether students are internalizing understandings.

The prescription of a rigid set of behavioral objectives for all students would lead to disaster: Trivialization, overemphasis of measurement, and "no time for fishing." But when used by a flexible teacher committed to the neutral-interactive view of man, behavioral objectives will provide a valuable tool. Objectives viewed in a hierarchal fashion, with the neutral-interactive man represented at the conceptual level and behavioral manifestations which indicate the integrating of knowledge at the behavioral

level, accommodate not only the humanists' and behaviorists' positions, but also the developmental needs of students. Such a hierarchal view provides students with a clear notion of where they want to progress educationally and indicates to teachers whether or not their instruction is indeed leading to these ends.

Succinctly, if behavioral objectives are appropriately applied and related to the conceptual/affective goals, they will lead to more effective instruction.

HIERARCHAL MODELS OF INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

Several hierarchal approaches to curriculum development have been proposed for use in the development of objectives for instruction. Both the advocates and opponents of behaviorally-stated objectives recognize that different types of educational objectives should and do exist simultaneously.

The Eisner Model

Eisner (1969) distinguished between two types of objectives, instructional and expressive. Instructional objectives emphasize the acquisition of the known, while expressive objectives deal with the elaboration, modification, and production of the known into something new. Using this dichotomy, instructional objectives are particularly amenable to prespecification in behavioral terms and serve as prerequisites for expressive objectives. The position taken by Eisner is particularly significant in that while he is opposed to behaviorally-stated objectives, he recognizes the need for more than generalized goal statements.

The Tri-University Model

The Tri-University Project on Performance Objectives in English (1971) developed a four-level hierarchy of objectives for the English curriculum. Level one objectives--rationale--includes very broad objectives, e.g. "learning to be a good citizen. Level two objectives--goals--encompasses the general goals of specific subject areas. Level three objectives--performance objectives--is comprised of level two objectives which have been stated in terms of student actions. Level four objectives--representative enabling objectives (not always stated)--is similar to a well-stated behavioral objective.

This four-part hierarchy is similar to the models proposed by Jenkins and Deno (1970) and Morreau (1972).

The Jenkins and Deno Model

Jenkins and Deno (1970) divided objectives into four levels, according to their degree of abstractness:

> Level A (most abstract) includes only global objectives, e.g. "The student will become a well-adjusted member of society." Such objectives are usually societal in nature and would be derived from the input of philosophers, sociologists, and anthropologists.
>
> Level B includes such hypothetical states as "to know," "to understand," and "to appreciate," and would be derived from the input of educational psychologists and curriculum experts, e.g. "The student will appreciate literature."
>
> Level C includes capabilities such as classify, define, produce examples, predict, and would be written by subject-matter experts and classroom teachers, e.g. "The student will define a sonnet."

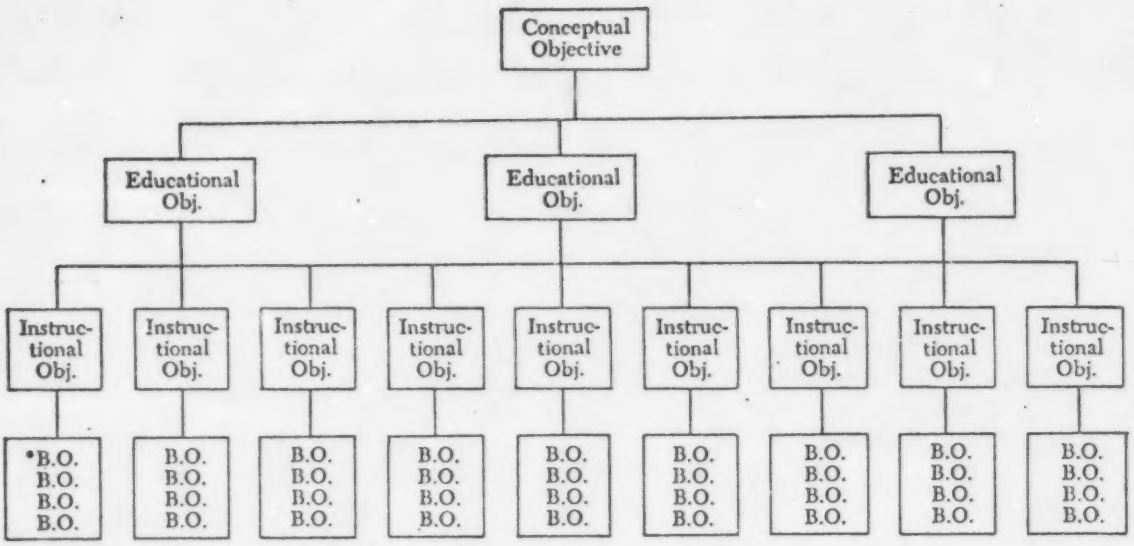
> Level D (least abstract) involves specific measurable behaviors, e.g. writes, checks off, marks, says--"The student will check off three examples of a sonnet."

From performance Level D, it could be inferred that: (1) A student is capable of classifying instances of a concept; (2) A student knows, understands, or appreciates a concept; and (3) As a result of one and two, a student will be a better citizen, the Level A objective.

In an unspecialized system, individual teachers specify objectives at all levels. In a more specialized setting they work with educational psychologists and curriculum developers between Levels B and C. The chief responsibilities of teachers using such a model in a specialized system include: Implementation of curricular activities, diagnosis of learning problems (based on pre-assessment), assessment of pupil attainment, and, where necessary, presentation of remedial activities (p. 14).

The Morreau Model

Morreau (1972) presented a hierarchy of objectives designed to bridge the gap between the humanistic and behavioral positions with the resulting objectives ranging from very general to very specific (Figure 2, p. 55).



* Behavioral Objective

Figure 2

Each level of the Morreau model can be applied to the English curriculum:

Conceptual Objective - Level I (parallels Jenkins' and Deno's Level A and Tri-University's rationale).

Definition: The generalized goal or outcome of the total program (the idealized student) (p. 44)

Sample objective: To utilize language to gain insight and to shape and control one's experiences.

Educational Objective - Level II (parallels Jenkins' and Deno's Level B and embodies several characteristics of Tri-University's goals).

Definition: Characteristics of the idealized student in each 'domain' (p. 44).

Sample Objectives:

1. The student will understand how reading literature can provide him with insight into his own experiences.

2. The student will learn to effectively communicate his ideas through writing.

3. The student will understand the subtle nuances of verbal communications.

Instructional Objective - Level III (parallels Jenkins' and Deno's Level C, but is somewhat different from Tri-University's performance objective, which combines the characteristics of an instructional objective and Morreau's behavioral objective--Level IV).

Definition: The specific classes of behavior which are included in each educational objective (p. 44).

Sample Objectives for educational objective #1:

1. The student will trace character development.

2. The student will construct alternative ways a character might have dealt with a problem.

3. The student will state why he does or does not admire a particular character.

4. The student will write alternative endings to a short story.

Behavioral Objective - Level IV (Jenkins and Deno refer to Level D as "the test," Tri-University as representative enabling objectives).

Definition: Statement of measurable outcomes incorporating the learner, the action, the condition, and the criterion measure (p. 44).

Sample Objectives for the instructional objectives listed above:

1. Given a short story with two characters in conflict, the student will choose one character and list three incidents which account for his development.

2. Given four alternatives to a particular character's problem, the student will select the one alternative most in keeping with the story.

3. Given three alternative endings to a particular story, the student will select the most suitable one from his perspective and write four reasons for the selection.

Morreau recommended that entire schools, departments or committees collaborate on establishing objectives for Levels I - III, but individual teachers in conjunction with students should develop behavioral objectives (Level IV). The hierarchy; the detailed explanation of the specific components of a well-phrased, measurable behavioral objective; and the enlarged list of observable behaviors, based on Sullivan's six terms, should prove useful to teachers when attempting to specify their objectives in behavioral terms.

This hierarchal model for the development of relevant objectives in language arts was tested at a Minnesota Council of Teachers of English workshop and proved to be effective in enabling teachers to: (1) Evaluate existing objectives, (2) modify unacceptable objectives, and (3) write complete objectives at the four specific levels (Hess and Morreau, 1972).

A HIERARCHAL MODEL OF OBJECTIVES FOR ENGLISH

While it is clear that the exclusive use of behavioral objectives might detract from the humane goals of English, it is equally apparent that traditional, generalized goals are not adequate for effective curriculum development and evaluation. A hierarchal development of objectives constitutes a feasible solution to the problem of stating and implementing educational goals. The Morreau model, which clearly specified the characteristics and constraints of each level of objectives, is more suitable than the Tri-University or Jenkins and Deno models.

The fourth level of the Jenkins and Deno and the Tri-University models are unsuitable. Jenkins and Deno refer to level four as the "test" level, a term which tends to overemphasize the importance of measuring student behavior. The Tri-University group uses the terms "performance objective" and "behavioral objective" synonymously; however, not all of their performance objectives include the four components of a well-structured behavioral objective--the learner, the condition, the action, and the criterion. What they refer to as "representative enabling objectives" is only an approximation of what Jenkins and Deno refer to as Level D and what Morreau refers to as behavioral objectives. Though the Tri-University group proposes a four-level hierarchy, in many instances they stop short of meeting their description and intermingle instructional and behavioral objectives.

The feasibility of viewing educational objectives as existing simultaneously in a four-level hierarchy is considerably enhanced when it is noted that the three similar models for the development of objectives were devised concurrently by persons not professionally related.

Most teachers are now using generalized objectives written at Level II--educational objectives. However, teachers should not omit Level I--conceptual objectives, for it is at this level that teachers can reassess the "view of man" which underlies their objectives, by asking such questions as: Why do I teach literature, composition, and language? What can the contents of the language arts curriculum do for individual students? What can

this subject matter contribute to society? Once English teachers have answered these questions, they should evaluate their Level II objectives to determine if in fact they contribute to their conceptualized "view of man." If not, they should be modified and new educational objectives formulated.

It is at Level III--instructional objectives, that "humanistic" teachers are resistant. But any teacher who has attempted to implement generalized objectives has had some type of instructional objectives in mind, if not written down. For example, a teacher who lists "To develop an understanding of poetry" as a general objective must decide on ways in which this objective can be accomplished, e.g. discussions of word choice, literal and figurative language, similes and metaphors, verse patterns, tone, mood, rhythm. This analysis leads to a formulation of instructional objectives:

> The student will explain the difference between literal and figurative language.
>
> The student will identify figures of speech.
>
> The student will recognize tone.
>
> The student will write the rhyme scheme of a Shakespearian sonnet.

Such instructional objectives parallel many currently being used in English classrooms.

At Level IV--behavioral objectives, teachers may insist that "it cannot be done" or "it need not be done." But it is only through the writing of objectives at this level that teachers can objectively evaluate their students' progress toward meeting Level III objectives, which in turn leads to the achievement of

Level II objectives, which ultimately leads to the realization of the conceptual objective (Level I). Since prerequisite skills are often required for a student to integrate and internalize the subject matter of the language arts curriculum with personal experience, the teacher must insure that these prerequisites are acquired before expecting internalization to occur.

A behavioral objective defines exactly what stimulus (condition) the teacher will provide, what the student will do in the presence of the stimulus (action) and what will indicate success (criterion measure).

How then could a teacher determine whether a student recognized tone (one example of an instructional objective--Level III)? By writing behavioral objectives designed to meet that goal and objectives-based measures by which it can be evaluated:

> Given a list of five musical instruments and a poem, the student will select the one instrument which would best fit the tone of the poem as background music and give three reasons for his choice.
>
> Given three short paragraphs and a list of ten words, the student will select one word which best fits the tone of each paragraph.
>
> Given a short tape of two different job interviews, the student will listen and write a short paragraph explaining the tone of each. His paragraph must meet prespecified criteria.

Behavioral objectives (Level IV) cannot stand alone. They must be based on a broad conceptualization of educational goals. Conversely, broad conceptual objectives cannot stand alone, for it is behavioral objectives which enable the teacher to assess whether a student is, in fact, reaching broad conceptual goals.

Teachers should develop procedures based on the empirical data supporting the premise that students are more successful when a knowledge of objectives is provided prior to instruction. Level III, instructional objectives, and Level IV, behavioral objectives, should be presented to students with ample opportunity for practice prior to their being assessed.

Many schools have or currently are converting generalized English goals into behaviorally-stated objectives, and many English teachers have reacted negatively to the conversion. Since objectives viewed in a hierarchal order from generalized to specific seems to be a feasible compromise between the humanists and behaviorists, additional insight into the negative reactions can be provided by examining some of the behaviorally-stated objectives school systems are writing.

EVALUATING AND ADAPTING CURRENTLY AVAILABLE BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES

English teachers interested in restructuring their educational goals to fit the compromise (Morreau) model, should evaluate objectives at each of the four levels using the following criteria:

Level I - Conceptual Objectives

1. Does the objective reflect the philosophical goals of the community, parents, and students?
2. Is the objective a realistic outcome of language arts instruction?
3. Is each objective stated in terms of the learner?

Level II - Educational Objectives

1. Are the objectives relevant to the achievement of Level I?
2. Do the objectives reflect the general goals of language arts instruction?

3. Are objectives delineated for each "domain"--skill/knowledge/attitudes?
4. Is each objective stated in terms of the learner?

Level III - Instructional Objectives

1. Does each objective contribute to the achievement of a Level II objective?
2. Is the desired class of behavior for each objective clearly specified? (Morreau lists eleven classes of behavior: Describe, modify, complete, name, order, select, reproduce, produce, solve, demonstrate, and classes of behavior tied to psychomotor events.)
3. Does the specific class of behavior reflect a relevant goal of language arts instruction?
4. Is each objective stated in terms of the learner?

Level IV - Behavioral Objectives

1. Does each objective contribute to the achievement of a specific Level III objective?
2. Does each objective include the learner, the observable action, the condition, and the criteria measure?
3. Are objectives written to accomplish desirable affective as well as cognitive behaviors?

When evaluating a set of objectives to determine whether or not they fit the compromise model, each of the above questions should be answered affirmatively. Objectives which do not meet the specified criteria for a given level should be modified.

Teachers applying these criteria to sets of objectives can evaluate and adapt objectives to fit the compromise model.

The Tri-University Project on Behavioral Objectives

Using a hierarchal model, the Tri-University Project on Behavioral Objectives for English, produced a 219-page catalog of Representative Performance Objectives for High School English (1972). The authors, J. N. Hook, D. H. Jacobs, E. G. Jenkinson, A. Lazarux, T. Pietras, D. A. Seybold, and A. P. VanMondfrans,

identified several uses for the catalog, including: In-service training, curriculum enrichment, resource for greater student involvement, curriculum evaluation and revision, and teacher preparation. The catalog includes chapters of objectives for sending and receiving non-verbal messages, speaking and listening, language, reading and responding to literature, writing, and exploring the mass media.

The chapter "Reading and Responding to Literature" includes eleven tasks to which teachers should refer as they guide high school students in their reading. For example:

> (5) To help the student discover relationships between literature and life, between experiences in literature and some of his own experiences and observations.
>
> (9) To leave students with skills of judging what they have read--skills developed through performance, which probably ought to be oral and informal before it is written and formal (Hook, et. al., 1971, p. 97).

Literature study is divided into six major categories of student performances--valuing, describing, discovering relationships, discriminating, inferring, and evaluating. Under each category of performance a number of goals are designated, followed by performance objectives and, in a few instances, representative enabling objectives. For example, under "valuing," seven goals, thirty-two performance objectives, and one enabling objective are listed:

Goal 4 The student values human experiences enough to read about them not only as they are depicted fictionally in narrative and drama but also as they are reported or interpreted in biography and autobiography, no matter how controversial.

Performance Objective 4.A

The student reads such works as James Baldwin's NOTES OF A NATIVE SON, Eldridge Cleaver's SOUL ON ICE, the AUTOBIOGRAPHY OF MALCOLM X, etc., with a view to seeing which of these writers' values he wishes to accept, which reject. The student then airs his feelings in a panel discussion with other students.

Representative Enabling Objective

Given some such testimony as the above, the student engages in a dialog with other students, addressing himself to such questions as the following: Why is reading important, if it is? To whom is it important? What is it important for? . . . (Hook, et. al., 1971, pp. 108-109).

Under the category of "inferring":

Goal 36 Given a narrative, a play, or a poem that relies heavily on imagery, metaphor, allegory, and symbolism to communicate its meaning(s), the student infers and states some of these subsurface meanings.

Performance Objective 36.A

In interpreting a given image in a literary work, the student--after stating the more or less obvious literal meaning--infers and states what he believes to be one or two possible symbolic meanings.

Representative Enabling Objective

a. When reading THE YEARLING, the student infers and states in his own words several possible meanings for the flutter-mill as suggested in this narrative.
b. When reading Williams' THE GLASS MENAGERIE, the student infers and states in his own words several possible meanings for glass and for menagerie as suggested in this play (Hook, et. al., 1971, pp. 158-159).

These objectives constitute legitimate, desirable objectives of the English curriculum. Though the Tri-University Catalog of objectives generally fits well into the confines of the compromise model, the enabling objectives need to be modified to include the four components of a well-phrased behavioral objective. For example:

a. Having read THE YEARLING, the student infers and states in his own words three possible meanings for the flutter-mill and gives a brief explanation of his reasoning.

b. Given THE GLASS MENAGERIE to read, the student will write three brief paragraphs about three possible meanings for glass menagerie. The paragraphs will be judged according to prespecified criteria.

The modified objectives clarify the evaluation procedure for both students and teachers.

The Tri-University Catalog could serve as a valuable source for individual teachers, even if they are not attempting to convert their general goals to specific objectives.

The Florida Curriculum

Hartzog (1969) reviewed the guidelines for writing objectives distributed to Florida schools by the Office of Accreditation Specialist and presented sample objectives for the language arts. The guidelines specified four requirements for a sound behavioral objective: (1) The objectives will refer to the learner and his behavior (the student will. . .); (2) The objective will describe an observable action or product of the learner (will write. . .); (3) The objective will state the conditions under

which the learner will perform the behavior (. . .after reading a literary selection . . .); and (4) The objective will state the minimum acceptable standard of performance (. . . a book review in class following a prescribed form). The accreditation office further specified that each objective should be written at three degrees of difficulty: (1) The point at which all students can perform; (2) The point at which a selected majority of students can perform; and (3) The point at which above-average students can perform. A school must meet certain standards at each level to receive accreditation.

Sample objectives for junior and senior high school language arts classes are presented in four parts. Paragraph 9.8411, Language Arts Grades 7 - 9, lists five "goals" which closely parallel the definition of and criterion for a conceptual (Level I) objective:

> a. Develop his ability to communicate through competent use of the English language in obtaining ideas, and in expressing himself clearly, concisely, accurately, and fluently;
>
> b. Understands himself as an individual and as a member of the communication group;
>
> c. Develop his ability to employ viewing, listening, speaking, reading and writing in the solution of problems (Hartzog, 1969, p. 9).

The next level titled "instruction," with slight modification, could be classified as an educational objective.

> Basic Skills--Each year's program has provided experiences and instruction designed to develop each of the components of the process of English language communication systematically, sequentially, and continuously, with emphasis on their interrelationships. These components include viewing, listening, speaking, reading and writing (Hartzog, 1969, p. 9).

The modified version:

> The student will be provided with experiences and instructional materials which systematically, sequentially and continuously develop each of the components of the process of language--viewing, listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

At the next level, objectives are written for each component of the language arts--viewing, listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Viewing is broken down into three categories--visual perception, visual communication, and evaluation of mass media. For each category of "viewing" an overall objective (or according to the compromise model, an instructional objective) and three accompanying behavioral objectives are written for the different ability groups:

> Visual Perception--Overall Objective
>
> The majority of the students have learned to identify techniques of visual communication through the provision of opportunities for purposeful, accurate, critical, and appreciative viewing.
>
> Degree 1
>
> After viewing a film, the students will tell the main events and name one technique used to make the story clear.
>
> Degree 2
>
> After viewing a film, the students will state the main idea and purpose and relate four techniques used to develop the idea.
>
> Degree 3
>
> After viewing a film, the students will state the main idea and purpose and list the techniques which caused the production to be effective (Hartzog, 1969, p. 10).

Level IV--behavioral objectives are stated in terms of "students" rather than "the student," implying standardization of objectives. Level IV objectives should be formulated by individual teachers for individual students. The writing of differing behavioral objectives for each of three ability groups does not

seem feasible in terms of teacher time or for students' self-images, particularly if students are given objectives prior to instruction. A student who might be able to do more challenging work may not have the opportunity under such a rigid, standardized system. Implicit in the Morreau model are allowances for individual interests and abilities. Students should not be "tracked" into a particular set of objectives. With the exception of these two features, the Florida model reaches middle ground between the humanists and the behaviorists. It is interesting to note that though Hartzog's fifty-six page article was published in 1969, little about the worth or faults of the Florida system are presented in the literature. Perhaps the edicts of the Office of Accreditation are not being rigorously followed or perhaps teachers are adjusting to the model without the usual controversy or publicity.

Irving, Texas Curriculum Guide

Members of the Irving, Texas school system (1972) prepared a curriculum guide for English, speech, drama, and journalism. The objectives for a ninth-grade basic class are prefaced with an overview and five so-called educational objectives. For example:

> Develop a comprehension of literature, language, and composition which may be developed further at subsequent levels of the basic program.
>
> Demonstrate application of the principles and philosophies he learns from reading to his own experience.
>
> Evaluate oral or written communications and determine if they fulfill their purposes (Irving Texas School System, 1972, p. 2).

These objectives fit Morreau's description of educational objectives and are essential to the development of a set of precisely-stated goals.

The first unit, Grammar, lists nine instructional objectives, e.g.:

> Communicate clearly, concisely, and intelligibly with other people both orally and in writing as measured by composition assignments and oral discussion in the classroom.
>
> Learn and use new words as measured by the context of daily speech and written work.
>
> Recognize the different parts of speech as measured by class assignments. (Irving, Texas School System, 1972, p. 3)

These objectives can also be classified as meeting the criteria for Level II of the Morreau model--educational objectives.

Twenty-nine specific activities are suggested which, with slight modification, could be classified as instructional objectives, e.g. :

1. Read aloud direct and indirect quotations and have students orally identify which are direct and which are indirect.
2. Have students write an account of a conversation they had recently using direct and indirect quotes.
3. Give students a list of words and have them identify the part of speech of each of them (Irving Texas School System, 1972, p. 4).

Rewritten in terms of student rather than teacher tasks they could be stated:

1. Students will orally identify direct and indirect quotes.

2. Students will write an account of a conversation, using direct and indirect quotes.

3. Students will identify the part of speech of each word in a list.

The behavioral-objective level is not represented in the curriculum guide, but given the other three components of the hierarchy, it would not be difficult to develop it.

While many teachers would not agree that an objective such as number three above is significant, this type of curriculum guide, based on the efforts of teachers in a specific school system, would be useful and worthwhile to both teachers and students. Effectively used, such guides provide both the students and teachers with mutual expectations as to what will be accomplished during a given course of instruction.

National Assessment Objectives

The advisory committee for the National Assessment of Educational Progress formulated a number of objectives for literature (1972). The objectives were broken down into three possible responses, ranging from the least to the most complex: "experiences literature," "responds to literature," and "values literature." The objectives at each level are too generalized to fit into the hierarchal model. What the committee calls assumption could be viewed as conceptual objectives:

> Assumptions: Literature is language used imaginatively. It communicates ideas and feelings. It expresses perceptions, interpretations, and visions of human experience. It exists in all cultures, in all times, and it appears in oral, written, and enacted forms (National Assessment Literature Objectives: Cycle II (Working Paper), 1972, p. 1).

The remainder of the objectives could be classified as generalized educational objectives. For example:

Listens to literature

1. Is aware of literary qualities in oral forms, such as poems, songs, jingles, jokes, nursery rhymes, story tellings, sermons, speeches, advertisements, and conversation.

2. Seeks to listen to oral forms of literature whether live or electronically reproduced (National Assessment Literature Objectives: Cycle II (Working Paper), 1972, p. 1).

The committee's objectives are too general and would require considerable modification for structuring in the four-part hierarchy.

The Lazarus Catalog

A catalog of objectives for English instruction by Lazarus and Knudson (1971) divided objectives into the "ings" of student behavior--listening, speaking, reading, reasoning, and writing, and subdivided each into four levels: Attitude (an effective response--liking or disliking), understanding (cognitive response), skill (applied understanding and knowledge), and habit (behavioral pattern that results from the continual use of skills). For example:

Listening

Attitudes

To enjoy listening; to take pleasure in hearing talented or skillful actors, readers, lecturers, and debators ("live" or on television and radio and in films).

To believe that everyone's listening can be improved.

To value listening as civilizing and humanizing.

Understandings

To know why one is listening; to be aware of one's own role and motives in listening; to bring something of oneself (one's prior knowledge, for example) to listening.

To be aware of the various kinds or degrees of listening: discriminating-critical, aesthetic-appreciative, informative, and escapist-relaxing.

Skills

To be able to follow spoken instructions.

To apprehend the speaker's major point(s) and supporting points.

To follow the speaker's examples and illustrations in support of his points and arguments.

Habits

To be a listener, in conversation and discussion, as well as a speaker.

To listen courteously and attentively; to give the speaker impartial hearing.

To concentrate; to "tune out" whatever is irrelevant to the speaker's purpose or, in a group discussion, the purpose of the group; to ignore distractions (Lazarus and Knudson, 1971, pp. 1-5).

These objectives incorporate Levels I and II, but need to be further developed. With the careful choice of more precise verbs some of the skill-level objectives could be modified into Level III instructional objectives, which could then be stated at the behavioral level. For example:

Level II

The student will learn to apprehend the speaker's major point(s) and supporting points.

Level III

The student will list the major and supporting points of a speech.

Level IV

Given a recording of a ten-minute Presidential address, the student will list two major intents with two supporting arguments for each.

Generally speaking, the Lazarus Catalog provides only a starting point for teachers attempting to state their educational goals in behavioral terms.

South Dakota Department of Public Instruction

The Department of Public Instruction for the State of South Dakota (1968) published a number of booklets of objectives, together with pupil progress records for various subjects. The objectives for elementary reading are prefaced with a recommendation that students be given copies of the objectives. Unless otherwise stated, 85% accuracy is considered to be an acceptable performance. For example:

Visual Discrimination

1. Identification of likenesses and differences in pictured objects.

   Given five rows of pictured objects with three pictured objects in each row and with and two objects in each row identical, the learner can mark the two objects which are alike or can mark the object which is different, as directed by the teacher (South Dakota Department of Public Instruction, 1968, p. 1).

This type of objective lends itself well to Levels III and IV of the Morreau model--a brief instructional objective followed by one which is behaviorally stated. Levels I and II are implicit in the objective. While the exclusion of Levels I and II might be feasible for elementary reading, they should be present in language arts objectives since they form the basis for the other two types.

Burnsville, Minnesota

In 1972, the Burnsville, Minnesota School System enlisted citizens, teachers, and students to systematically reassess the educational goals the school should accomplish. The initial step was to adopt a new philosophy of education. The General Committee, consisting of citizens and teachers, developed a set of conceptual objectives (Level I), which were evaluated by a Review and Evaluation Committee consisting of fifty citizens and parents, thirty faculty members, and twenty students from the junior and senior high schools. When a concensus was reached, the conceptual objectives were adopted as district policy.

The next phase was to develop a set of educational objectives. These were drafted, evaluated, and finalized by a committee of citizens, teachers, and students. Instructional objectives (Level III) were developed by teachers and students, and Level IV, behavioral objectives, were developed by faculty members. Behavioral objectives were to be "definable, quantifiable, and measurable."

The response to the appeal to the community for persons to serve on committees to specify educational philosophy and objectives was overwhelming and resulted in a new rapport between the community and the school. The Burnsville School System preferred not to adapt existing objectives to a behavioral model. Instead they reassessed and clarified objectives at the conceptual level, which in turn provided a community-approved framework for the remaining three levels of the hierarchy.

Teachers who decide to adapt objectives to fit the compromise model will find the Tri-University Catalog and the Hartzog article helpful. As a possible starting point, it might also be useful for teachers to relocate or write the general objectives they are now using. Most of these are probably Level II--educational objectives--and will provide a valuable lead. Instructional and, subsequently, behavioral objectives should then be conceptualized, keeping in mind some of the potential dangers at the behavioral level, such as trivialization, erosion of the affective domain, and failure to respond to spontaneous learning.

CONCLUSION

The question is not whether behavioral objectives should be used, but how they should be applied. Application of behavioral objectives as a part of a larger hierarchy of objectives, ranging from general to specific, constitutes a feasible compromise between the Gestalt, neutral-interactive view of man and the behavioral view. The validity of structuring educational goals in a hierarchal manner is supported not only by the Morreau, Jenkins and Deno, and Tri-University models, but also by the number of curriculum guides which approach curriculum design from this perspective.

Teachers converting general objectives to behavioral statements of learner outcomes can evaluate and adapt existing objectives to fit within the confines of the hierarchal model, or they can participate in a community-wide effort to construct a completely new set of objectives as in Burnsville, Minnesota. Either

way, the time required should result in more efficient and effective instruction, a generalization supported by a student who participated in a field test of the Tri-University objectives:

> School is the most fun it has ever been. We know where we're going in each class, because we've helped to make the decisions about where we're going. We aren't kept in the dark about the purposes of a course or what is expected of us. And there's a lot of room for individual initiative. We can do special projects if we like; we don't all have to do the same things. In some classes we establish minimum things to achieve, but we can follow different paths to get there. We have plenty of opportunity to share, to talk about what we're doing. Often we work in groups, too. The teacher is a helper, a resource person--not a dictator who every day stands up in front of the room and tells us to open our books to page 231. Some of us are doing more reading and writing and stuff like that than we've ever done, but we don't mind doing it, because we've like, you know, assigned the work to ourselves (Hook, et. al., 1971, p. 25).

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SUMMARY

As early as 1918, prominent educators were calling for "definite and particularized" objectives. The advent of programmed learning, teaching machines, and emphasis on accountability has brought about a revival of interest in the problem of stating learner outcomes. Currently many educators advocate prespecifying objectives in terms of observable learner behaviors, a position which has caused much controversy. The emotional nature of the literature indicates that the issue is more than pedagogical. If there were firm empirical answers to the question, teachers might more easily resolve the conflict, but a survey of studies revealed a paucity of data. There is, however, cautious support for the hypothesis that providing students with specified objectives prior to instruction results in increased learning, but the procedures for using behavioral objectives to effect learning have not been demonstrated empirically.

Rational analysis indicated a number of possible advantages of clearly specified behavioral objectives, particularly when viewed within a larger hierarchy, a hierarchy consisting of broad conceptual objectives (Level I), generalized objectives for a particular subject area (Level II), the specific classes of behavior sought (Level III), and behavioral objectives (Level IV) stated in terms of the learner, the observable action, the condition, and the criterion measure. The feasibility of such a model is enhanced by the fact that several articles and curriculum guides developed a similar four-level hierarchy.

Even the proponents of behavioral objectives do not deny that the exclusive use of behavioral objectives would be disastrous. But when viewed in a larger perspective, behavioral objectives enable teachers and students to assess a student's progress toward becoming a neutral-interactive man.

When utilizing the compromise model to convert their general objectives, teachers have several options. They can select and modify goals from sets of objectives or they can work with citizens and colleagues to draft their own objectives.

The review of the literature on the relevance of behavioral objectives for English indicates that, correctly applied, they do have relevance.

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Clark, S. Color Me Complete and Sequential: The Curriculum Builder's Game Adapted for the Secondary English Program. In C. Suhor, J. S. Mayher, and F. J. D'Angelo (Ed.), The Growing Edges of Secondary English. Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1968.

Clark discusses and applies Bloom's and Krathwohl's cognitive and affective taxonomies to the English curriculum. She lists sample behaviors related to English for each level of the two domains. She includes the original taxonomies in an appendix. Her article clearly illustrates how the taxonomies can be applied to English and provides a valuable and practical lead for English teachers interested in classifying and behavioralizing their objectives.

Eisner, E. W. Instructional and Expressive Objectives. In R. E. Stake (Ed.), American Educational Research Association Monograph Series on Curriculum Evaluation, 3: Instructional Objectives. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1969.

This monograph includs articles by Eisner, Popham, and Sullivan and includes information on the background and utilization of behavioral objectives. Eisner, an opponent of behavioral objectives, relates behavioral objectives to educational history and research, discusses some of the philosophical implications of the behavioral approach, and concludes that both instructional and expressive objectives should be considered in educational planning, with emphasis on the latter. Popham, a proponent of behavioral objectives, explains the construction of a well-phrased objective, reviews research pertinent to the topic, and refutes some of the arguments against using behavioral objectives. Sullivan clarifies the rationale for his six performance terms. A discussion and a bibliography follow each article.

Hartzog, E. Models of Behavioral Objectives for Secondary Language Arts. Duval County Board of Public Instruction, Jacksonville, Florida, 1969. Also in ERIC: ED 052 176.

This article reviews the curriculum guidelines from the Office of Accreditation Specialist in Florida which specifies that objectives be written in a hierarchal fashion from general to specific. Models of behavioral objectives for language arts are offered for departments as guides in writing behavioral objectives for their particular school situation. The variety of useable suggestions are a valuable resource for teachers.

Hook, J. N., Jacobs, P. H., Jenkinson, E. B., Lazarus, A., Pietras, T., Seybold, D. A., and VanMondfrans, A. P. Representative Performance Objectives for High School English: A Guide for Teaching, Evaluating, and Curriculum Planning. New York: Ronald Press, 1971

This text is a worthwhile addition to any English teacher's library. Chapter One, "Caution: Read Before Using," introduces teachers to some potential problems of performance objectives and some possible uses for the catalog. Objectives are delineated in a hierarchal manner from general to specific in the areas of sending and receiving non-verbal messages, speaking and listening, language, reading and responding to literature, writing, and exploring the mass media. Even teachers not interested in behavioral specifications of goals will find this book a useful delineation of the goals of English instruction.

Jenkins, J. R. & Deno, S. L. A Model for Instructional Objectives: Responsibilities and Advantages. Educational Technology, 1970, 11-16.

This article presents a behavioral model for curriculum, incorporating general and specific objectives, defined at four levels. Responsibility for objectives at each level is stated, and the advantages of such a model are listed. This model, which poses a feasible compromise between humanists and behaviorists could be adapted to any subject area, including English.

Krathwohl, D. R. Stating Objectives Appropriately for Program, for Curriculum and for Instructional Materials Development. Journal of Teacher Education, 1965, 16, 83-92.

Krathwohl contends that objectives are needed at various levels of abstraction and specifically delineates each, distinguishing between cognitive and affective learnings. This short, concisely written article provides a valuable initiation into the current controversy concerning behaviorally-stated objectives. The tone is less emotional than many of the articles dealing with the same topic.

Krathwohl, D. R., Bloom, B. S. & Masia, B. B. Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: The Classification of Educational Goals, Handbook II: Affective Domain. New York: David McKay, 1964.

This is a useful text for teachers. The introductory material anticipates many of the concerns teachers have and problems they must face when writing objectives for the affective domain, such as sequencing and measurement. The

classification scheme is thoroughly explained in the second section of the book. For English teachers, the introductory section and the condensed version of the taxonomy is probably more useful than the explanations of the classifications.

Maloney, H. B. (Ed.) Accountability and the Teaching of English. Urbana, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1972.

This text presents both sides of the behavioral objectives question. The Ruth and Purves articles represent the negative position, while Seybold, Forehand, and Morreau speak for the positive aspects of behavioral objectives. The text is prefaced with the policy statement drafted by the 1971 Commission on the English Curriculum, which is further reinforced by the Maloney and Squire articles. The text provides practical information for teachers who must restate general goals in behavioral terms.

Maxwell, J. & Tovatt, A. (Ed.) On Writing Behavioral Objectives for English. Urbana, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1970.

This objectively written text includes articles from both sides of the behavioral objectives controversy. Many of the arguments are contradictory; none present empirical evidence. This book has limited usefulness since it does not provide much direction on how to write behavioral objectives. English teachers wishing to acquaint themselves with both sides of the issue will find the book useful.

Morreau, L. E. Behavioral Objectives: Analysis and Application. In H. B. Maloney (Ed.), Accountability and the Teaching of English. Urbana, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1972.

Morreau presents a model which bridges the gap between the behaviorists and humanists by retaining the best of both. He views objectives in a hierarchy, ranging from broad general statements (conceptual objectives) to very specific statements of student behavior (behavioral objectives), which include the learner, the observable action, the condition, and the criterion measure. The confines of each of the four levels are clearly delineated. This is a very practical article for teachers who must convert general goals to behavioral ones.

Walbesser, H. H. & Eisenberg, T. A. A Review of Research on Behavioral Objectives and Learning Hierarchies. ERIC Information Center for Science Education, Columbus, Ohio, 1972. Also in ERIC: ED 059 900.

This article provides an historical perspective and a review of research on behavioral objectives and learning hierarchies. The research is concisely and clearly summarized and quite comprehensive, though none of the studies deal specifically with English. The bibliography at the end is a valuable resource for teachers interested in assessing the empirical evidence.

Zoellner, R. Behavioral Objectives for English. College English, 1972, 33, 418-432.

Zoellner makes some important distinctions between S-R and S-R-R behavioral psychology. He contends that S-R-R, with the emphasis on reinforcement, is the only psychology suitable for the classroom. He critiques On Writing Behavioral Objectives for English, criticizing its total inattention to scientific terms and its emotional tone.

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